



Early Journal Content on JSTOR, Free to Anyone in the World

This article is one of nearly 500,000 scholarly works digitized and made freely available to everyone in the world by JSTOR.

Known as the Early Journal Content, this set of works include research articles, news, letters, and other writings published in more than 200 of the oldest leading academic journals. The works date from the mid-seventeenth to the early twentieth centuries.

We encourage people to read and share the Early Journal Content openly and to tell others that this resource exists. People may post this content online or redistribute in any way for non-commercial purposes.

Read more about Early Journal Content at <http://about.jstor.org/participate-jstor/individuals/early-journal-content>.

JSTOR is a digital library of academic journals, books, and primary source objects. JSTOR helps people discover, use, and build upon a wide range of content through a powerful research and teaching platform, and preserves this content for future generations. JSTOR is part of ITHAKA, a not-for-profit organization that also includes Ithaka S+R and Portico. For more information about JSTOR, please contact support@jstor.org.

SCIENCE

NEW YORK, SEPTEMBER 25, 1891.

ANTHROPOLOGY PAST AND PRESENT.

It was forty-four years ago that for the first and for the last time I was able to take an active part in the meetings of the British Association for the Advancement of Science. It was at Oxford, in 1847, when I read a paper on the "Relations of Bengali to the Aryan and Aboriginal Languages of India," which received the honor of being published in full in the "Transactions" of the association for that year. I have often regretted that absence from England and pressure of work have prevented me year after year from participating in the meetings of the association. But, being a citizen of two countries,—of Germany by birth, of England by adoption,—my long vacations have generally drawn me away to the Continent, so that, to my great regret, I found myself precluded from sharing either in your labors or in your delightful social gatherings.

I wonder whether any of those who were present at that brilliant meeting at Oxford in 1847 are present here to-day. I almost doubt it. Our president then was Sir Robert Inglis, who will always be known in the annals of English history as having been preferred to Sir Robert Peel as member of Parliament for the University of Oxford. Among other celebrities of the day I remember Sir Roderick Murchison, Sir David Brewster, Dean Buckland, Sir Charles Lyell, Professor Sedgwick, Professor Owen, and many more—a galaxy of stars, all set or setting. Young Mr. Ruskin acted as secretary to the geological section. Our section was then not even recognized as yet as a section. We ranked as a sub-section only of Section D, Zoology and Botany. We remained in that subordinate position till 1851, when we became Section E, under the name of Geography and Ethnology. From 1869, however, Ethnology seems almost to have disappeared again, being absorbed in Geography, and it was not till the year 1884 that we emerged once more as what we are to-day, Section H, or Anthropology.

In the year 1847 our sub-section was presided over by Professor Wilson, the famous Sanscrit scholar. The most active debaters, so far as I remember, were Dr. Prichard, Dr. Latham, and Mr. Crawford, well known then under the name of the Objector-General. I was invited to join the meeting by Bunsen, then Prussian Minister in London, who also brought with him his friend Dr. Karl Meyer, the Celtic scholar. Prince Albert was present at our debates, so was Prince Louis Lucien Bonaparte. Our ethnological sub-section was then most popular, and attracted very large audiences.

When looking once more through the debates carried on in our section in 1847, I was very much surprised when I saw how very like the questions which occupy us to-day are to those which we discussed in 1847. I do not mean to say that there has been no advance in our science. Far from it. The advance of linguistic, ethnological, anthropological, and biological studies, all of which claim a hearing in our section, has been most rapid. Still that advance has been steady and sustained; there has been no cataclysm, no deluge, no break in the advancement of our science, and nothing seems to me to prove its healthy growth more clearly than this uninterrupted continuity, which united the past with the present, and will, I hope, unite the present with the future.

No paper is in that respect more interesting to read than the address which Bunsen prepared for the meeting in 1847, and which you will find in the "Transactions" of that year. Its title is "On the Results of the recent Egyptian Researches in reference to Asiatic

and African Ethnology, and the Classification of Languages." But you will find it a great deal more than what this title would lead you to expect.

There are passages in it which are truly prophetic, and which show that, if prophecy is possible anywhere, it is possible, nay, it ought to be possible, in the temple of science, and under the inspiring influence of knowledge and love of truth.

Allow me to dwell for a little while on this remarkable paper. It is true, we have travelled so fast that Bunsen seems almost to belong to ancient history. This very year is the hundredth anniversary of his birth, and this very day the centenary of his birth is being celebrated in several towns of Germany. In England also his memory should not be forgotten. No one, not being an Englishman by birth, could, I believe, have loved this country more warmly, and could have worked more heartily than Bunsen did to bring about that friendship between England and Germany which must forever remain the corner-stone of the peace of Europe, and the *sine quâ non* of that advancement of science to which our association is devoted. His house in Carlton Terrace was a true international academy, open to all who had something to say, something worth listening to, a kind of sanctuary against vulgarity in high places, a neutral ground where the best representatives of all countries were welcome and felt at home. But this also belongs to ancient history. And yet, when we read Bunsen's paper, delivered in 1847, it does not read like ancient history. It deals with the problems which are still in the foreground, and if it could be delivered again to-day by that genial representative of German learning, it would rouse the same interest, provoke the same applause, and possibly the same opposition also, which it roused nearly half a century ago. Let me give you a few instances of what I mean.

We must remember that Darwin's "Origin of Species" was published in 1859, his "Descent of Man" in 1871. But here in the year 1847 one of the burning questions which Bunsen discusses is the question of the possible descent of man from some unknown animal. He traces the history of that question back to Frederick the Great, and quotes his memorable answer to D'Alembert. Frederick the Great, you know, was not disturbed by any qualms of orthodoxy. "In my kingdom," he used to say, "everybody may save his soul according to his own fashion." But when D'Alembert wished him to make what he called the *salto mortale* from monkey to man, Frederick the Great protested. He saw what many have seen since, that there is no possible transition from reasonlessness to reason, and that with all the likeness of their bodily organs there is a barrier which no animal can clear, or which, at all events, no animal has as yet cleared. And what does Bunsen himself consider the real barrier between man and beast? "It is language," he says, "which is unattainable, or, at least, unattained, by any animal except man." In answer to the argument that, given only a sufficient number of years, a transition by imperceptible degrees from animal cries to articulate language is at least conceivable, he says: "Those who hold that opinion have never been able to show the possibility of the first step. They attempt to veil their inability by the easy but fruitless assumption of an infinite space of time, destined to explain the gradual development of animals into men; as if millions of years could supply the want of the agency necessary for the first movement, for the first step, in the line of progress. No numbers can effect a logical impossibility. How, indeed, could reason spring out of a state which is destitute of reason? How can speech, the expression of thought, develop itself, in a year, or in millions of years, out of articulate sounds, which express feelings of pleasure, pain, and appetite?"

He then appeals to Wilhelm von Humboldt, whom he truly calls the greatest and most acute anatomist of almost all human speech.

¹ Address before the section of Anthropology of the British Association for the Advancement of Science, at Cardiff, August, 1891, by Professor F. Max Müller, president of the section (Nature, Sept. 3).

Humboldt goes so far as to say: "Rather than assign to all languages a uniform and mechanical march that would lead them step by step from the grossest beginnings to their highest perfection, I should embrace the opinion of those who ascribe the origin of language to an immediate revelation of the Deity. They recognize at least that divine spark which shines through all idioms, even the most imperfect and the least cultivated."

Bunsen then sums up by saying: "To reproduce Monboddo's theory in our days, after Kant and his followers, is a sorry anachronism, and I therefore regret that so low a view should have been taken of the subject lately in an English work of much correct and comprehensive reflection and research respecting natural science." This remark refers, of course, to the "Vestiges of Creation" (see an article in the *Edinburgh Review*, July, 1845), which was then producing the same commotion which Darwin's "Origin of Species" produced in 1859.

Bunsen was by no means unaware that in the vocal expression of feelings, whether of joy or pain, and in the imitation of external sounds, animals are on a level with man. "I believe with Kant," he says, "that the formation of ideas or notions, embodied in words, presupposes the action of the senses and impressions made by outward objects on the mind. But," he adds, "what enables us to see the genus in the individual, the whole in the many, and to form a word by connecting a subject with a predicate, is the power of the mind, and of this the brute creation exhibits no trace."

You know how for a time, and chiefly owing to Darwin's predominating influence, every conceivable effort was made to reduce the distance which language places between man and beast, and to treat language as a vanishing line in the mental evolution of animal and man. It required some courage at times to stand up against the authority of Darwin, but at present all serious thinkers agree, I believe, with Bunsen, that no animal has developed what we mean by rational language, as distinct from mere utterances of pleasure or pain, from imitation of sounds and from communication by means of various signs, a subject that has lately been treated with great fulness by my learned friend Professor Romanes in his "Mental Evolution of Man." Still, if all true science is based on facts, the fact remains that no animal has ever formed what we mean by a language; and we are fully justified, therefore, in holding with Bunsen and Humboldt, as against Darwin and Professor Romanes, that there is a specific difference between the human animal and all other animals, and that that difference consists in language as the outward manifestation of what the Greeks meant by *Logos*.

Another question which occupies the attention of our leading anthropologists is the proper use to be made of the languages, customs, laws, and religious ideas of so-called savages. Some, as you know, look upon these modern savages as representing human nature in its most primitive state, while others treat them as representing the lowest degeneracy into which human nature may sink. Here, too, we have learned to distinguish. We know that certain races have had a very slow development, and may, therefore, have preserved some traces of those simple institutions which are supposed to be characteristic of primitive life. But we also know that other races have degenerated and are degenerating even now. If we hold that the human race forms but one species, we cannot, of course, admit that the ancestors even of the most savage tribes, say of the Australians, came into the world one day later than the ancestors of the Greeks, or that they passed through fewer evolutions than their more favored brethren. The whole of humanity would be of exactly the same age. But we know its history from a time only when it had probably passed already through many ups and downs. To suppose, therefore, that the modern savage is the nearest approach to primitive man would be against all the rules of reasoning. Because in some countries, and under stress of unfavorable influences, some human tribes have learned to feed on human flesh, it does not follow that our first ancestors were cannibals. And here, too, Bunsen's words have become so strikingly true that I may be allowed to quote them: "The savage is justly disclaimed as the prototype of natural, original man; for linguistic inquiry shows that the languages of savages are degraded and decaying fragments of nobler formations."

I know well that in unreservedly adopting Bunsen's opinion on this point also I run counter to the teaching of such well-known writers as Sir John Lubbock, Reclus, and others. It might be supposed that Mr. Herbert Spencer also looked upon savages as representing the primitive state of mankind. But if he ever did so, he certainly does so no longer, and there is nothing I admire so much in Mr. Herbert Spencer as this simple love of truth, which makes him confess openly whenever he has seen occasion to change his views. "What terms and what conceptions are truly primitive," he writes, "would be easy if we had an account of truly primitive men. But there are sundry reasons for suspecting that existing men of the lowest type forming social groups of the simplest kind do not exemplify men as they originally were. Probably most of them, if not all, had ancestors in a higher state" (*Open Court*, No. 205, p. 2896).

Most important also is a hint which Bunsen gives that the students of language should follow the same method which has been followed with so much success in geology; that they should begin with studying the modern strata of speech, and then apply the principles, discovered there, to the lower or less accessible strata. It is true that the same suggestion had been made by Leibnitz, but many suggestions are made and are forgotten again, and the merit of rediscovering an old truth is often as great as the discovery of a new truth. This is what Bunsen said: "In order to arrive at the law which we are endeavoring to find (the law of the development of language) let us first assume, as geology does, that the same principles which we see working in the (recent) development were also at work at the very beginning, modified in degree and in form, but essentially the same in kind." We know how fruitful this suggestion has proved, and how much light an accurate study of modern languages and of spoken dialects has thrown on some of the darkest problems of the science of language. But fifty years ago it was Sanscrit only, or Hebrew, or Chinese, that seemed to deserve the attention of the students of comparative philology. Still more important is Bunsen's next remark, that language begins with the sentence, and that in the beginning each word was a sentence in itself. This view also has found strong supporters at a later time,—for instance, my friend Professor Sayce,—though at the time we are speaking of it was hardly thought of. I must here once more quote Bunsen's own words: "The supreme law of progress in all language shows itself to be the progress from the substantial isolated word, as an undeveloped expression of a whole sentence, towards such a construction of language as makes every single word subservient to the general idea of a sentence, and shapes, modifies, and dissolves it accordingly." And again: "Every sound in language must originally have been significative of something. The unity of sound (the syllable, pure or consonantized) must therefore originally have corresponded to a unity of conscious plastic thought, and every thought must have had a real or substantial object of perception. . . . Every single word implies necessarily a complete proposition, consisting of subject, predicate, and copula."

This is a most pregnant remark. It shows as clearly as daylight the enormous difference there is between the mere utterance of the sound *Pah* and *Mah*, as a cry of pleasure or distress, and the pronunciation of the same syllable as a sentence, when *Pah* and *Mah* are meant for "This is *Pah*," "This is *Mah*;" or, after a still more characteristic advance of the human intellect, "This is a *Pah*," "This is a *Mah*," which is not very far from saying, "This man belongs to the class or genus of fathers."

Equally important is Bunsen's categorical statement that everything in language must have been originally significant, that everything formal must originally have been substantial. You know what a bone of contention this has been of late between what is called the old school and the new school of comparative philology. The old school maintained that every word consisted of a root and of certain derivative suffixes, prefixes, and infixes. The modern school maintained that there existed neither roots by themselves nor suffixes, prefixes, and infixes by themselves, and that the theory of agglutination—of gluing suffixes to roots—was absurd. The old school looked upon these suffixes as originally independent and significative words; the modern school declined to accept this view except in a few irrefragable instances.

I think the more accurate reasoners are coming back to the opinion held by the old school, that all formal elements of language were originally substantial, and therefore significative; that they are the remnants of predicative or demonstrative words. It is true that we cannot always prove this as clearly as in the case of such words as *hard-ship*, *wis-dom*, *man-hood*, where *hood* can be traced back to *hād*, which in Anglo-Saxon exists as an independent word, meaning state or quality. Nor do we often find that a suffix like *mente* in *claramente*, *clairemente*, continues to exist by itself, as when we say in Spanish *clara*, *concisa y elegantemente*. It is perfectly true that the French, when they say that a hammer falls *lourdement*, or heavily, do not deliberately take the suffix *ment* — originally the Latin *mente*, “with a mind” — and glue it to their adjective *lourd*. Here the new school has done good service in showing the working of that instinct of analogy which is a most important element in the historical development of human speech. One compound was formed in which *mente* retained its own meaning; for instance, *forti mente*, “with a brave mind.” But when this had come to mean *bravely*, and no more, the working of analogy began; and if *fortement*, from *fort*, could mean “bravely,” then why not *lourdement*, from *lourd*, “heavily?” But in the end there is no escape from Bunsen’s fundamental principle that everything in language was originally language — that is, was significative, was substantial, was material — before it became purely formal.

But it is not only with regard to these general problems that Bunsen has anticipated the verdict of our own time. Some of his answers to more special questions also show that he was right when many of his contemporaries, and even successors, were wrong. It has long been a question, for instance, whether the Armenian language belonged to the Indic branch of the Aryan family, or whether it formed an independent branch, like Sanscrit, Persian, or Greek. Bunsen, in 1847, treated Armenian as a separate branch of Aryan speech; and that it is so was proved by Professor Hübschmann in 1883.

Again, there has been a long controversy whether the language of the Afghans belonged to the Indic or the Indic branch. Dr. Trumpp tried to show that it belonged, by certain peculiarities, to the Indic or Sanscrit branch. Professor Darmsteter has proved but lately that it shares its most essential characteristics in common with Persian. Here, too, Bunsen guessed rightly — for I do not mean to say that it was more than a guess — when he stated that “Pushtu, the language of the Afghans, belongs to the Persian branch.”

I hope you will forgive me for having detained you so long with a mere retrospect. I could not deny myself the satisfaction of paying this tribute of gratitude and respect to my departed friend Baron Bunsen. To have known him belongs to the most cherished recollections of my life. But though I am myself an old man, — much older than Bunsen was at our meeting in 1847, — do not suppose that I came here as a mere *laudator temporis acti*. Certainly not. If one tries to recall what anthropology was in 1847, and then considers what it is now, its progress seems most marvellous. I do not think so much of the new materials which have been collected from all parts of the world. These last fifty years have been an age of discovery in Africa, in central Asia, in America, in Polynesia, and in Australia, such as can hardly be matched in any previous century.

But what seems to me even more important than the mere increase of material is the new spirit in which anthropology has been studied during the last generation. I do not mean to depreciate the labors of the so-called *dilettanti*. After all, *dilettanti* are lovers of knowledge, and in a study such as the study of anthropology the labors of these volunteers, or *franc-tireurs*, have often proved most valuable. But the study of man in every part of the world has ceased to be a subject for curiosity only. It has been raised to the dignity, but also to the responsibility, of a real science, and it is now guided by principles as strict and as rigorous as any other science — such as zoology, botany, mineralogy, and all the rest. Many theories which were very popular fifty years ago are now completely exploded; nay, some of the very principles by which our science was then guided have been discarded. Let me give you one more instance — perhaps the most

important one — as determining the right direction of anthropological studies.

At our meeting in 1847 it was taken for granted that the study of comparative philology would be in future the only safe foundation for the study of anthropology. Linguistic ethnology was a very favorite term used by Bunsen, Prichard, Latham, and others. It was, in fact, the chief purpose of Bunsen’s paper to show that the whole of mankind could be classified according to language. I protested against this view at the time, and in 1854 I published my formal protest in a letter to Bunsen, “On the Turanian Languages.” In a chapter called “Ethnology versus Phonology” I called, if not for a complete divorce, at least for a judicial separation between the study of philology and the study of ethnology. “Ethnological race,” I said, “and phonological race are not commensurate, except in ante-historical times, or, perhaps, at the very dawn of history. With the migration of tribes, their wars, their colonies, their conquests and alliances, which, if we may judge from their effects, must have been much more violent in the ethnic than ever in the political periods of history, it is impossible to imagine that race and language should continue to run parallel. The physiologist should pursue his own science, unconcerned about language. Let him see how far the skulls, or the hair, or the color of the skin, of different tribes admits of classification; but to the sound of their words his ear should be as deaf as that of the ornithologist’s to the notes of caged birds. If his Caucasian class includes nations or individuals speaking Aryan (Greek), Turanian (Turkish), and Semitic (Hebrew) languages, it is not his fault. His system must not be altered to suit another system. There is a better solution both for his difficulties and for those of the phonologist than mutual compromise. The phonologist should collect his evidence, arrange his classes, divide and combine as if no Blumenbach had ever looked at skulls, as if no Camper had ever measured facial angles, as if no Owen had ever examined the basis of a cranium. His evidence is the evidence of language, and nothing else; this he must follow, even though in the teeth of history, physical or political. . . . There ought to be no compromise between ethnological and phonological science. It is only by stating the glaring contradictions between the two that truth can be elicited.”

At first my protest met with no response; nay, curiously enough, I have often been supposed to be the strongest advocate of the theory which I so fiercely attacked. Perhaps I was not entirely without blame, for, having once delivered my soul, I allowed myself occasionally the freedom to speak of the Aryan or the Semitic race, meaning thereby no more than the people, whoever and whatever they were, who spoke Aryan or Semitic languages. I wish we could distinguish in English as in Hebrew between *nations* and *languages*. Thus in the Book of Daniel, iii. 4, “the herald cried aloud, . . . O people, nations, and languages.” Why then should we not distinguish between nations and languages? But to put an end to every possible misunderstanding, I declared at last that to speak of “an Aryan skull would be as great a monstrosity as to speak of a dolichocephalic language.”

I do not mean to say that this old heresy, which went by the name of linguistic ethnology, is at present entirely extinct. But among all serious students, whether physiologists or philologists, it is by this time recognized that the divorce between ethnology and philology, granted if only for incompatibility of temper, has been productive of nothing but good.

Instead of attempting to classify mankind as a whole, students are now engaged in classing skulls, in classing hair, and teeth, and skin. Many solid results have been secured by these special researches; but, as yet, no two classifications, based on these characteristics, have been made to run parallel.

The most natural classification is, no doubt, that according to the color of the skin. This gives us a black, a brown, a yellow, a red, and a white race, with several subdivisions. This classification has often been despised as unscientific; but it may still turn out far more valuable than is at present supposed.

The next classification is that by the color of the eyes, as black, brown, hazel, gray, and blue. This subject also has attracted much attention of late, and, within certain limits, the results have proved very valuable.

The most favorite classification, however, has always been that according to the skulls. The skull, as the shell of the brain, has by many students been supposed to betray something of the spiritual essence of man; and who can doubt that the general features of the skull, if taken in large averages, do correspond to the general features of human character? We have only to look round to see men with heads like a cannon-ball and others with heads like a hawk. This distinction has formed the foundation for a more scientific classification into brachycephalic, dolichocephalic, and mesocephalic skulls. The proportion of 80:100 between the transverse and longitudinal diameter gives us the ordinary or mesocephalic type, the proportion of 75:100 the dolichocephalic, the proportion of 85:100 the brachycephalic type. The extremes are 70:100 and 90:100.

If we examine any large collection of skulls, we have not much difficulty in arranging them under these classes; but if, after we have done this, we look at the nationality of each skull, we find the most hopeless confusion. Pruner Bey, as Peschel tells us in his "Volkerkunde," has observed brachycephalic and dolichocephalic skulls in children born of the same mother; and if we consider how many women have been carried away into captivity by Mongolians in their inroads into China, India, and Germany, we cannot feel surprised if we find some longheads among the roundheads of those Central Asiatic hordes. Only we must not adopt the easy expedient of certain anthropologists who, when they find dolichocephalic and brachycephalic skulls in the same tomb, at once jump to the conclusion that they must have belonged to two different races. When, for instance, two dolichocephalic and three brachycephalic skulls were discovered in the same tomb at Alexandropol, we were told at once that this proved nothing as to the simultaneous occurrence of different skulls in the same family: nay, that it proved the very contrary of what it might seem to prove. It was clear, we were assured, that the two dolichocephalic skulls belonged to Aryan chiefs and the three brachycephalic skulls to their non-Aryan slaves, who were killed and buried with their masters, according to a custom well known to Herodotus. This sounds very learned, but is it really quite straightforward?

Besides the general division of skulls into dolichocephalic, brachycephalic, and mesocephalic, other divisions have been undertaken, according to the height of the skull, and, again, according to the maxillary and the facial angles. This latter division gives us orthognathic, prognathic, and mesognathic skulls.

Lastly, according to the peculiar character of the hair, we may distinguish two great divisions, the people with woolly hair (Ulotriches) and people with smooth hair (Lissotriches). The former are subdivided into Lophocomi, people with tufts of hair, and Eriocomi, people with fleecy hair. The latter are divided into Euthycomi, straight-haired, and Euplocomi (not Euplocomic, wavy-haired, as Brinton gives it), wavy-haired. It has been shown that these peculiarities of the hair depend on the peculiar form of the hair-tubes, which, in cross-sections, are found to be either round or elongated in different ways.

Now all these classifications, to which several more might be added, those according to the orbits of the eyes, the outlines of the nose, the width of the pelvis, are by themselves extremely useful. But few of them only, if any, run strictly parallel. It has been said that all dolichocephalic races are prognathic, and have woolly hair. I doubt whether this is true without exception; but, even if it were, it would not allow us to draw any genealogical conclusions from it, because there are certainly many dolichocephalic people who are not woolly-haired, as, for instance, the Eskimos (Brinton's "Races and Peoples," p. 249).

Now, let us consider whether there can be any organic connection between the shape of the skull, the facial angle, the conformation of the hair, or the color of the skin, on one side, and what we call the great families of language on the other. That we speak at all may rightly be called a work of nature, *opera naturale*, as Dante said long ago; but that we speak thus or thus, *cosi o cosi*, that, as the same Dante said, depends on our pleasure—that is our work. To imagine, therefore, that as a matter of necessity, or as a matter of fact, dolichocephalic skulls have anything to do with Aryan, mesocephalic with Semitic, or brachy-

cephalic with Turanian speech, is nothing but the wildest random thought; it can convey no rational meaning whatever. We might as well say that all painters are dolichocephalic, and all musicians brachycephalic, or that all lophocomic tribes work in gold, and all lissocomic tribes in silver.

If anything must be ascribed to prehistoric times, surely the differentiation of the human skull, the human hair, and the human skin, would have to be ascribed to that distant period. No one, I believe, has ever maintained that a mesocephalic skull was split or differentiated into a dolichocephalic and a brachycephalic variety in the bright sunshine of history.

But let us, for the sake of argument, assume that in prehistoric times all dolichocephalic people spoke Aryan, all mesocephalic, Semitic, all brachycephalic, Turanian languages; how would that help us?

So long as we know anything of the ancient Aryan, Semitic, and Turanian languages, we find foreign words in each of them. This proves a very close and historical contact between them. For instance, in Babylonian texts of 8000 B.C. there is the word *sindhu* for cloth made of vegetable fibres, linen. That can only be the Sanscrit *sindhu*, the Indus, or *saindhava*, what comes from the Indus. It would be the same word as the Homeric *σινδών*, fine cloth ("Physical Religion," p. 87). In Egyptian we find so many Semitic words that it is difficult to say whether they were borrowed or derived from a common source. I confess I am not convinced, but Egyptologists of high authority assure us that the names of several Aryan peoples, such as the Sicilians, and Sardinians, occur in the fourteenth century B.C., in the inscriptions of the time of Menephtah I. Again, as soon as we know anything of the Turanian languages—Finnish, for instance—we find them full of Aryan words. All this, it may be said, applies to a very recent period in the ancient history of humanity. Still, we have no access to earlier documents, and we may fairly say that this close contact which existed then existed, probably, at an earlier time also.

If, then, we have no reason to doubt that the ancestors of the people speaking Aryan, Semitic, and Turanian languages, lived in close proximity, would there not have been marriages between them so long as they lived in peace, and would they not have killed the men and carried off the women in time of war? What, then, would have been the effect of a marriage between a dolichocephalic mother and a brachycephalic father? The materials for studying this question of *metisage*, as the French call it, are too scanty as yet to enable us to speak with confidence. But whether the paternal or maternal type prevailed, or whether their union gave rise to a new permanent variety, still it stands to reason that the children of a dolichocephalic captive woman might be found, after fifty or sixty years, speaking the language of the brachycephalic conquerors.

(To be continued.)

NOTES AND NEWS.

FROM an experiment reported in Bulletin No. 35 of the Kentucky Experiment Station, which is located in the heart of the Blue Grass region at Lexington, it appears that the results are the same as they have been for the last two seasons, that fertilizers, whether used in combination or singly, have no effect upon the yield of wheat. On the same lands, for corn, potatoes, hemp, and tobacco, the results of potash fertilizers show very favorably.

—Sr. H. Morize, astronomer at the observatory of Rio de Janeiro, has just published a "Sketch of the Climatology of Brazil," which will be welcome to meteorologists, as hitherto systematic observations have only been published for a very few points of that immense country, covering 39 degrees of latitude. The sketch has been drawn up mainly from the observations of travelers and private observers. *Nature* extracts a few brief notes from the sketch, as follows. Thunder-storms are very frequent all along the coast, and are mostly harmless; regular cyclones are very rare. The most dangerous winds are the pamperos, which blow from the south-west, and have been fully described by the late Admiral Fitz-Roy, and a still more rare and dangerous wind which blows from the south-east. As regards temperature, the